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ABSTRACT

This collection of four papers focuses on selected issues in early childhood education. The first paper "The Advisory Approach to Inservice Training" presents the highlights of a year's experience with the advisory (on-site consultant) approach to the inservice education of elementary school teachers. A major objective of this pilot study was to be able to answer questions about what it is like to be an advisor, what problems arise in the course of using this approach, and how an advisory system should be designed. The second paper, "Developmental Stages of Preschool Teachers" suggests four dimensions of training for preschool teachers: (1) developmental stages of the teacher; (2) training needs of each stage; (3) location of the training; and (4) timing of training. In the third paper, "The Enabling Model for Early Childhood Programs" the broad dimensions of the Enabler Model have been outlined. Rather than offering a community a predesigned experimental curriculum, the Enabler Model provides regular on-site support and guidance to assist local communities in the formulation and implementation of their own preschool programs. The last paper, "Condition with Caution", provides a paradigm in terms of phenotype and genotype for the consideration of contrasting explanations of behavior. (CS,

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A COLLECTION OF PAPERS FOR TEACHERS

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Table of Contents

I. The Advisory Approach to Inservice Training.....1

II. Developmental Stages of Preschool Teachers.....18

III. The Enabling Model For Early Childhood Programs.....29

IV. Condition With Caution.....41

THE ADVISORY APPROACH TO INSERVICE TRAINING

Lilian G. Katz, Ph.D.

With the assistance of:
Jane Morpurgo
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This project was supported by funds from the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, Springfield, Illinois through the Area Service Center Region IV South, Urbana School District #116, Champaign County, Illinois.

Introduction

This report presents the highlights of a year's experience with the advisory approach to the inservice education of elementary school teachers. The term "advisory" is frequently associated with informal or open education (Armington, 1972; Amarel et. al., 1973). However, for the purposes of this project, the use of the term was not limited to open education. Rather, it refers to a set of inservice training strategies characterized by:

(a) providing inservice assistance to teachers only when such assistance has been requested by them,

(b) providing assistance in terms of the requestors' own goals, objectives and needs,

(c) providing such assistance in situ rather than in courses, institutes or seminars, and

(d) providing assistance in such a way as to increase the likelihood that teachers become more self-helpful and independent rather than helpless and dependent.

The latter characteristic--to increase teachers' self-helpfulness--is related to the assumption that helplessness can be learned, and that the provision of help carries with it the risk of teaching its recipients to inhibit self-helpfulness.

A major objective of this pilot study was to be able to answer questions about what it is like to be an advisor, what problems arise in the course of using this approach, and how an advisory system should be designed. To answer these questions, the advisors kept extensive field notes of their experiences. This report is based largely on the advisors' field notes. (Conceptualization of the advisory role can be found in Katz, 1971.)

General Description of the Project

Seven schools in both rural and metropolitan communities in central Illinois participated in the project. In two of the schools--one rural, one metropolitan--only one teacher participated. In the remaining five schools, more than two and as many as five teachers were advised.

Through the Area Service Center of the region, announcements of the availability of advisory services were distributed. Interested teachers were invited to request the service through the Center. Because the Area Service Center of this particular region has been actively involved in presenting workshops and conferences on open education, many of the requesting teachers were interested in obtaining assistance related to open education.

In each school in which teachers participated in the advisory project, the official consent and cooperation of the principal were obtained.

The two Advisors were experienced elementary school teachers, who also had extensive experience in training teachers. Both Advisors had a long standing interest in the advisory approach to working with teachers in schools and were involved in developing plans for the project.

Advisory Approach: Activities of Advisors

At the beginning of the school year the Advisors met individually with teachers who had requested the advisory service. During initial meetings, Advisors explained their concepts of the advisory system, how they planned to make themselves available, and proposed a tentative schedule of visits to the schools. In schools in which two or more teachers were advised, teachers were invited to sign up in advance for appointments on a weekly basis.

A brief summary of the types of activities of the Advisors is presented below:

1. Locating, identifying and preparing instructional materials to meet specific instructional needs.
2. Assisting teachers with formulating plans for more effective room arrangements, for learning centers and interest centers.
3. Discussing and thinking through problems of managing classroom behavior, how to develop class rules, how to help specific individual children.
4. Providing moral support and being generally supportive; sharing with teachers the set-backs and difficulties they experienced themselves as teachers.
5. Alerting teachers to available resources to help them with instruction.
6. Relating information about the good and successful practices of one teacher to another and vice versa.
7. Giving informative feedback from their observations of the classroom activity.
8. Demonstrating (or modeling) methods and techniques of teaching.
9. Helping teachers to think through alternative methods and approaches to teaching specific skills and content.

The Problems of Advisors

Throughout the academic year the Advisors kept field notes in which they described the problems encountered.

Problems related to teachers

From time to time teachers and Advisors shared sensitive information to be held in confidence. Although no crises developed around such matters, those preparing to perform advisory services should establish a policy to guide them under these conditions. The requirements and expectations of those to whom teachers and Advisors are responsible (e.g., principals) would provide sources of conflict for the Advisor in matters of confidentiality.

On a few occasions Advisors found themselves in situations in which they undermined the authority of the teacher in the eyes of her own pupils. This problem is particularly closely associated with demonstrating methods or techniques. The relative merits and risks of demonstrating or modeling should be considered in the light of the potential impact such procedures may have on pupils' perception of their teachers' authority and competence.

A major aspect of the advisory approach as we conceived it was to resist the temptation to give "answers," "solutions" or direct advice. Our rationale was that succumbing to that temptation might serve to increase teachers' tendency to see themselves as consumers of "answers" and "solutions" rather than as generators of them. Advisors found that their resistance to such temptation undermined their credibility in the eyes of the teachers. Advisors suspected that when they refrained from making a few clear suggestions teachers wondered whether they really "knew their stuff." The need to establish credibility (of expertise) fairly early in the Advisor-teacher relationship overrode the earlier plan to abstain from explicit "answer"-giving. The optimum resolution of these conflicting demands of the interpersonal situation is not clear.

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Advisors experienced some frustrations from the lack of sites where teachers could be taken to observe the kinds of practices they wanted to learn about. They also had some problems about terminating relationships with teachers. In one case, a teacher had little apparent need for help, although she requested it. The Advisor's limited time in that school could have been more fruitfully used with another teacher, yet she sensed that withdrawal would have greatly disappointed this teacher. In another case, an Advisor felt that a particular relationship with a teacher who needed much help was not developing along productive lines and that her time could have been used more fruitfully with other teachers. In such cases, termination of the relationship is also a delicate matter. Solutions to the problems presented by these two cases were not found.

Advisors repeatedly noted that teachers seemed to be lonely and/or suffering from a sense of isolation, and seemed to enjoy or even indulge in the companionship the advisors provided. Advisors had no official authority or power and no obligations to the school district authorities. But they did have their own experiences of trials and tribulations to share and held a non-judgmental posture toward the teachers advised. In this way teachers seemed to see them as interested and concerned colleagues, who were there to support them. The Advisors' field notes give the impression that alleviation of loneliness and isolation was a major effect of the advisory approach we used.

From time to time, Advisors demonstrated or modeled techniques and methods. On one occasion, an Advisor noted that a teacher's response to this demonstrating procedure was, "I could never be that good," indicating a sense of discouragement or fear of failure. In the case of other teachers,

Advisors noted that teachers commented on how much they had "picked up" by watching the Advisor interact with their pupils in the classroom. These mixed effects of demonstrating or modeling suggest that great caution is necessary in using demonstration as a method of inservice training.

Advisors reported that when helping teachers think through alternative solutions to instructional problems, teachers frequently seemed to gain insight into new approaches but were afraid to act upon those insights. Occasionally, Advisors had the impression that teachers asked for help in changing their classroom practices more because they felt peer pressure to do so than because they identified their own practices as ineffective.

Problems related to administrators and district policy

In some cases, schools, and the districts they were part of, were locked into highly specified curriculum requirements which blocked teachers' readiness to try different methods and/or techniques. One school was caught in district-wide adoption of four major curriculum innovations being implemented simultaneously. In addition to the narrowing of teacher options this caused, the amount of time teachers were required to participate in special meetings related to these curricula seemed to lead to teacher exhaustion and feelings of great pressure. It is unlikely that our approach to the advisory system could be useful in such a district.

In one school the Advisor thought that the administrator in charge felt threatened by her presence and her warm rapport with teachers. The history of administrator-staff relationships in that school was a chequered one and the district had experienced considerable tension over teacher unionism. It was a difficult school for the Advisor to work in, but the teachers themselves were very eager to maintain the advisory services.

Problems with the Procedures of Advising

The most persistent difficulty encountered by Advisors was the lack of sufficient time and assorted problems related to time.

1. Advisors spent large blocks of time en route (no less than 50 miles one way) and in inclement weather as well.
2. Teachers' time was greatly constrained by their daily work and assorted meetings. They often ended their working day too exhausted to worry about alternative methods, philosophies or even individual children. Apparently many teachers settle into patterns of ad hoc "coping with the day." Knowledge about the variety of ways in which teachers construct "maps" or "images" of their daily work would be very helpful.
3. Advisors felt that their services should not have been offered at the beginning of the school year. They noted that most teachers needed a settling-in period with their new pupils before they could identify problems for advisory services.

Advisors noted that, in their talks with teachers and from their own observations, the scheduling of visits as one day per week was not optimum. Experimentation with visits of two successive days every other week seemed to be much more rewarding for both Advisors and teachers. Factors involved in rescheduling are:

1. When the need for particular materials was identified, Advisors could bring them to the teacher the following day rather than the following week.

2. Some teachers seemed to need more than just a week between visits to think through things that had been discussed and to make plans for implementing new ideas.
3. Sometimes the weekly visit seemed to be a pressured situation. Teachers sometimes felt apologetic if they had not had a chance to try out strategy planned during the previous visit or to think through particular problems previously discussed. The resulting defensiveness of teachers seemed to undermine the quality of relationships the Advisors were striving to develop with teachers.
4. Advisors noted that the pressure of time made it difficult for them to learn as much as they needed to about local resources. It may be that Advisors could spend some of the early weeks of the school finding out about local resources.
5. Advisors noted often the great frustration of using so much time to drive to the schools. Nevertheless, Advisors also suggested that it is important for Advisors to be persons from out of town. They felt that their suggestions were seen as novel and a little different from the conventions of the school district. The out-of-town attribute of Advisors also helps teachers to see them as outside of the official hierarchy of their school district, and as people who have no power to sanction their practices.
6. Advisors noted that about six weeks before the end of the academic year, teachers began to "wind down" their efforts. They talked of alternative methods in terms such as "Next year I'll try that." This kind of psychological suspension of efforts to change (even though to pupils six weeks can be a lifetime) was unanticipated and deserves further study.

Advisors' Personal Problems

One of the principal objectives of this project was to find out what it is like to be an Advisor. Accordingly, Advisors kept notes of the many sources of stress as well as satisfaction they experienced themselves.

Both Advisors experienced some discouragement when their early expectations concerning their effectiveness were tested in the course of implementing their plans. The constraints of time--theirs and teachers'--were oppressive. Beyond that, teachers seemed to focus on relatively superficial aspects of their teaching: materials, room arrangement, temporal organization, how to keep children busy when they finished their work early. Advisors were more sensitive to problems teachers had in their underlying relationships with individual children as well as the classroom group. They both felt that they had failed to get to the key issues they had expected to focus on.

The intention we had to help teachers in terms of their own goals and objectives, rather than the Advisors' was very difficult to implement. Advisors do indeed have preferences and ideologies of their own concerning teaching methods. To respect ideologies and methods which are not congenial to one's own preferences, is very difficult. Advisors felt more comfortable and more positively reinforced by those teachers whose ideologies came close to their own.

Advisors reported it was difficult to judge how well they were doing. A framework for evaluating or assessing progress and effectiveness had not been developed. Generally, the Advisors seemed to be looking for changes in teacher's behavior. Some of their effectiveness, however, may have been forestalling teachers' disintegration or maintaining stability

of teacher functioning.

Advisors reported what they saw as a persistent need to be alert and "high" on each working day. Time with each teacher was so short that "down" days had to be avoided. The Advisors felt that their own enthusiasm was potentially contagious; they noted that on the occasional days when they lacked enthusiasm teachers asked them, "What's wrong?" "Aren't you feeling well?" Possibly a teacher might construe that the Advisor's mood was promulgated by something in her own behavior.

Advisors suggested that they might have been strengthened if they had both worked in one school. In such a case, they would have intersected occasionally and provided much needed support for each other.

Reactions of Teachers*

Teachers were interviewed concerning their perceptions and judgments of the value of the Advisory Project. The interviews were informal and were performed with only a subsample of the total group of teachers served.

The teachers in this subsample viewed the Advisory Project as highly successful. All were extremely disappointed that the project would not continue another year. They felt that this kind of inservice assistance was extremely helpful in that it occurred within their classrooms. The commitment and input of the Advisors were recognized and greatly appreciated, as was the opportunity teachers had to receive constructive criticism of their own teaching efforts. Time was identified as the most salient constraint operating in this sort of endeavor. The most useful way to

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*Evaluation portion of this report was provided by Mr. Robert L. Wolf.

represent the feeling on the part of this respondent group is to provide natural samples of their own comments:

General Perceptions

Appreciated the opportunity to work with the advisor. I received all sorts of new ideas but, most importantly, I received the kind of support I greatly needed.

A terrific project that provided a great deal of help to our school.

It is a pity that this sort of inservice isn't continuing. This kind of effort is the most meaningful for children as well as teachers. It is more tangible. You can talk over things you would like to do. The advisor is objective and fair and, therefore, can provide much constructive help.

Teachers grew to be fond of advisor as a person and began to share all sorts of problems with her--even problems of a very personal nature.

The advisor was well received by the entire school staff, even by those who did not have much contact with her.

Major Strengths

This kind of inservice can best serve the needs of children because the advice is based on concrete situations in the classroom. It was not abstract like most other inservice I have experienced. The advisor can help with specific problems involving specific children.

Demonstration teaching--it is so valuable to see someone else working with your children in your class. You feel that, if someone else can do it, so can you.

Advisor brought in a wealth of materials and ideas.

The immediacy of fulfilling requests--working in the classroom, bringing in materials, and most of all acting as a sounding board.

The kids loved her.

The advisor always fulfilled her promises.

The advisor was not defensive if her ideas were not heeded. She accepted praise and criticism graciously.

Not only were the advisor's suggestions useful, but they were also consistent over time. This is much more effective than a one-day workshop or visit.

The advisor had great experience and background in classroom environments. She also had a great skill in communicating this expertise. It is important to get someone who knows more than one, but who does not flaunt it. The fact that I viewed the advisor as a master teacher and not a supervisor is really important to me.

The advisor is adaptable to anyone's room and problems and she still provides solutions. She was extremely flexible.

Most resource people are in schools to do their own thing--use teacher and school for research, doctorate, etc.--but the advisor seemed set in helping people and this was recognizable.

The relationships among teachers in our school were positively altered because of the advisor.

Major Weaknesses

Time constraint--only one day in the school means that the advisor spread herself too thin.

The process relies on the person--in this case we were extremely lucky.

Not enough time to sit and talk. Noon is not a good time--I need a break at noon and do not like to think much. In a program like this you need much more time to reflect on and discuss ideas.

The change process is slow, and therefore you need time to discuss change.

Advisor works too hard, pushed herself too much.

When advisor visited every week there wasn't enough time to absorb and implement ideas. Every other week would have been better.

It would have been good if the advisor could have been in school before the kids arrived--the distance the advisor had to travel was too great, however.

More of a time schedule as to visits would have been useful.

One year is really not enough.

It may be seen from these comments how crucial are the personality, openness, and expertise of the Advisor. It also appears that the most valuable concept derived from these interviews concerns the desirable qualities of an Advisor rather than insight about the advisory process itself. Teachers did, however, seem to recognize the importance of time in the light of teachers attempting to change their current forms of practice; and this reflects quite heavily on this sort of inservice process.

Summary and Conclusions

A final comment on the Advisor's field roles seems in order. These notes contained many insights from which to refine the advisory approach we designed. Many points were procedural (e.g., scheduling, timing, etc.). Some points concerned the definition of the advisory role; some concerned the process by which teachers became involved in the project.

Hindsight suggests that the advisory role, as we conceived it, carries two types of role conflict. One revolves around the importance of refraining from giving teachers solutions to their problems and the threat to the Advisor's credibility that this role expectation seems to produce. Another concerns the expectation that Advisors support teachers whose ideologies diverge from their own. By definition, ideologies are strong, perhaps passionate, personal commitments. The extent to which Advisors can give support and advice in those situations is not known. (It may be that before entering into a long-term contract teachers and Advisors should have a period of interaction during which they can find out if they are congenial.)

Advisors sensed a wide variety of teacher motives for deciding to participate in the project. Some were responding more to perceived peer pressure for change than to intrapersonal pressure for improvement. One

teacher apparently "used" the Advisor to bolster her "image" in the school as a superstar. Another first year teacher was reaching out for almost anything that would help her in her struggle for survival. Both Advisors remarked that there may be an optimum point in a teacher's career when the Advisory type of assistance is most appropriate. A veteran teacher may be flirting with change, but in fact be very bound by long-standing habits. When Advisory resources are limited, the identification of teachers' readiness to maximize the advisory approach would be helpful.

Advisors noted repeatedly that teachers seemed to be lonely, to feel isolated and to enjoy the professional interaction the Advisors' visits made possible. Working with the field notes suggests to the senior author that Advisors also experienced loneliness and isolation. It seems resonable to suggest that one suffers loneliness or isolation relative to the companionship and closeness one has learned to need and expect. This suggests that teacher education--both at the preservice as well as inservice level--might include some effort to help teachers and potential advisors to set their occupational expectations with respect to companionship at more realistic levels.

Another theme in the field notes concerned the need Advisors felt to be enthusiastic during their visits. These comments point to deeper issues in the personal constructs of the majority of school people. It is not clear why enthusiasm and learning are so confused. The enthusiasm of teachers' responses to the advisory--or any other innovation--is a doubtful indicator of success. The seriousness of their responses may be more valid indices of effectiveness.

The evaluation of this project seems to provide further evidence that the more traditional modes of inservice training need to be replaced with programs that provide help for teachers in their individual classrooms. Trainers, such as the two advisors, who assume roles of working in school settings over extended periods of time, should possess certain qualities that will make them more effective in carrying out their tasks. In addition to having expertise in the form of broad backgrounds, varied experiences, and skill in demonstrating activities with children, advisors need to be honest, constructive, nondefensive, and resourceful. The experiences of the advisors in this project would indicate that the advisory approach is a feasible one for inservice training.

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DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES OF PRESCHOOL TEACHERS

Lilian G. Katz, Ph.D.

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DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES OF PRESCHOOL TEACHERS[1]

Preschool teachers can generally be counted on to talk about developmental needs and stages when they discuss children. It may be equally meaningful to think of teachers themselves as having developmental sequences in their professional growth patterns (5). The purpose of the present discussion is to outline the tasks and associated training needs of each suggested developmental stage, and to consider the implications for the timing and location of training efforts.

It seems reasonable to suggest that there may be at least four developmental stages for teachers. Individual teachers may vary greatly in the length of time spent in each of the four stages outlined below and schematized in Figure 1.

STAGE I - SURVIVAL

Developmental Tasks

During this stage, which may last throughout the first full year of teaching, the teacher's main concern is whether or not

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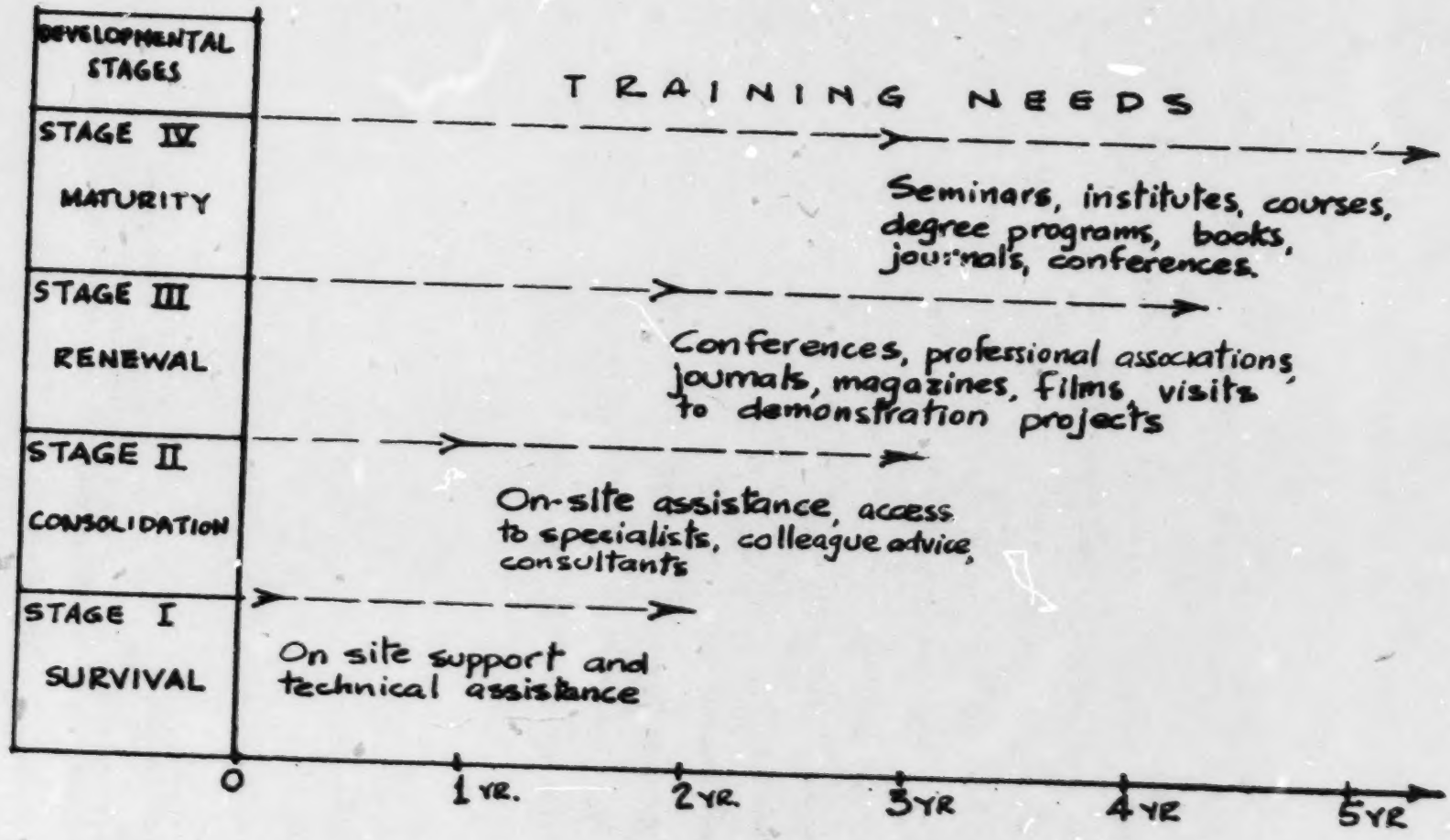

STAGES OF DEVELOPMENT & TRAINING NEEDS OF PRESCHOOL TEACHERS

FIGURE 1.

she can survive. This preoccupation with survival may be expressed in terms like these: "Can I get through the day in one piece? Without losing a child? Can I make it until the end of the week - the next vacation? Can I really do this kind of work day after day? Will I be accepted by my colleagues?" Such questions are well expressed in Ryan's (6) enlightening collection of accounts of first year teaching experiences.

The first full impact of responsibility for a group of immature but vigorous young children (to say nothing of encounters with their parents) inevitably provokes teacher anxieties. The discrepancy between anticipated successess and classroom realities intensifies feelings of inadequacy and unpreparedness.

Training Needs

During this period the teacher needs support, understanding, encouragement, reassurance, comfort and guidance. She needs instruction in specific skills and insight into the complex causes of behavior--all of which must be provided on the classroom site. On-site trainers may be senior staff members, advisors, consultants or program assistants. Training must be constantly and readily available from someone who knows both the trainee and her teaching situation well. The trainer should have enough time and flexibility to be on call as needed by the trainee. Schedules of periodic visits which have been arranged in advance cannot be counted on to coincide with trainees' crises. Cook and Mack (3) describe the British pattern of on-site training

given to teachers by their headmasters (principals). Armington (1) also describes the way advisors can meet these teacher needs.

STATE II - CONSOLIDATION

Developmental Tasks

By the end of the first year the teacher has usually decided that she is capable of surviving. She is now ready to consolidate the overall gains made during the first stage and to differentiate specific tasks and skills to be mastered next. During Stage II, teachers usually begin to focus on individual problem children and problem situations. This focus may take the form of looking for answers to such questions as: "How can I help a clinging child? How can I help a particular child who does not seem to be learning?"

During Stage I, the neophyte acquires a baseline of information about what young children are like and what to expect of them. By Stage II the teacher is beginning to identify individual children whose behavior departs from the pattern of most of the children she knows.

Training Needs

During this stage, on-site continues to be valuable. A trainer can help the teacher through mutual exploration of a problem. Take, for example, the case of a young teacher from a day care center

who was eager to get help and expressed her problem in the question, "How should I deal with a clinging child?" An on-site trainer can, of course, observe the teacher and child in situ and arrive at suggestions and tentative solution strategies fairly quickly. However, without firsthand knowledge of the child and context, an extended give-and-take conversation between teacher and trainer may be the best way for the trainer to help the teacher to interpret her experience and move towards a solution of the problem. The trainer might ask the teacher such questions as, "What have you done so far? Give an example of some experiences with this particular child during this week. When you did such and such, how did the child respond?" (See Katz (4) for some examples of problem-treatment strategies).

Also, in this stage the need for information about specific children or problem children suggests that learning to use a wider range of resources is needed. Psychologists, social and health workers and other specialists can strengthen the teacher's skills and knowledge at this time. Exchanges of information and ideas with more experienced colleagues may help teachers master the developmental tasks of this period. Opportunities to share feelings with other teachers in the same stage of development may help to reduce some of the teacher's sense of personal inadequacy and frustration.

STAGE III - RENEWAL

Developmental Tasks

Often, during the third or fourth year of teaching, the teacher begins to tire of doing the same old things. She starts to ask more questions about new developments in the field: "Who is doing what? Where? What are some of the new materials, techniques, approaches and ideas? It may be that what the teacher has been doing for each annual crop of children has been quite adequate for them, but that she herself finds the recurrent Valentine cards, Easter bunnies and pumpkin cutouts insufficiently interesting! If it is true that a teacher's own interest or commitment to the projects and activities she provides for children contributes to their educational value, then her need for renewal and refreshment should be taken seriously.

Training Needs

During this stage, teachers find it especially rewarding to meet colleagues from different programs on both formal and informal occasions. Teachers in this developmental stage are particularly receptive to experiences in regional and national conferences and workshops and profit from membership in professional associations and participation in their meetings. Teachers are now widening the scope of their reading, scanning numerous magazines and journals, and viewing films. Perhaps during this period they may be ready to take a close look at their own classroom teaching through video-taping.

This is also a time when teachers welcome opportunities to visit other classes, programs, and demonstration projects.

Perhaps it is at this stage that the teacher center has the greatest potential value (See Silberman (7) and Bailey (2).) Teacher centers are places where teachers can gather together to help each other learn or re-learn skills, techniques and methods, to exchange ideas and to organize special workshops. From time to time specialists in curriculum, child growth or any other area of concern which teachers identify are invited to the center to meet with teachers.

STAGE IV - MATURITY

Developmental Tasks

Maturity may be reached by some teachers within three years, by others in five or more. The teacher at this stage has come to terms with herself as a teacher. She now has enough perspective to begin to ask deeper and more abstract questions, such as: "What are my historical and philosophical roots? What is the nature of growth and learning? How are educational decisions made? Can schools change societies? Is teaching a profession?" Perhaps she has asked these questions before. But with the experience she has now gained, the questions represent a more meaningful search for insight, perspective and realism.

Training Needs

Throughout maturity, teachers need an opportunity to participate in conferences and seminars and perhaps to work towards a degree. Mature teachers welcome the chance to read widely and to interact with educators working on many problem areas on many different levels. Training sessions and conference events which Stage II teachers enjoy may be very tiresome to the Stage IV teacher. (Similarly, introspective and searching discussion seminars enjoyed by Stage IV teachers may lead to restlessness and irritability among the beginners of Stage I.)

SUMMARY

In the above outline, four dimensions of training for preschool teaching have been suggested: (1) developmental stages of the teacher; (2) training needs of each stage; (3) location of the training; and (4) timing of training.

Developmental Stage of the Teacher. It is useful to think of the growth of preschool teachers (and perhaps other teachers, also) as occurring in stages, linked very generally to experience gained over time.

Training Needs of Each Stage. The training needs of teachers change as experience occurs. For example, the issues dealt with in the traditional social foundations courses do not seem to address themselves to the early survival problems which are critical to the inexperienced. However, for the maturing teacher, those same issues

may help to deepen her understanding of the total complex context in which she is trying to be effective.

Location of Training. The location of training should be moved as the teacher develops. At the beginning of the new teacher's career, training resources must be taken to her so that training can be responsive to the particular (and possibly unique) developmental tasks and working situation the trainee faces in her classroom. Later on as the teacher moves on past the survival stage, training can move toward the college campus.

Timing of Training. The timing of training should be shifted so that more training is available to the teacher on the job than before it. Many teachers say that their preservice education has had only a minor influence on what they do day to day in their classrooms, which suggests that strategies acquired before employment will often not be retrieved under pressure of concurrent forces and factors in the actual job situation.

However, even though it is often said that experience is the best teacher, we cannot assume that experience teaches what the new trainee should learn. To direct this learning, to try to make sure that the beginning teacher has informed and interpreted experience should be one of the major roles of the teacher trainer.

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THE ENABLING MODEL FOR EARLY CHILDHOOD PROGRAMS

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THE ENABLING MODEL FOR EARLY CHILDHOOD PROGRAMS

Lilian G. Katz

One of the most salient aspects of early childhood education during recent years has been the development of more than twenty alternative curriculum models.[1] In general, these models are plans for organizing the instruction of young children which have been carefully developed in research or demonstration projects. The Follow Through Project for the primary grades, and the Planned Variation Experiment for Head Start are major research and development efforts supported by HEW, and designed to give us new information about using various models being studied.

In the spring of 1970, the National Office of Head Start[2] saw the need to test a new kind of early childhood model as part of the Planned Variation Experiment. Rather than offer a community a predesigned experimental curriculum, the basic plan of the Enabling Model was to provide the supportive assistance of an early childhood specialist to help local Head Start staff and parents do better what they wanted to do in their own programs. Although the original plan was developed for Head Start centers, the model can be adapted for use in many other types of early childhood

1. Parker compiled descriptions of 18 models in R. Parker "An Overview of Cognitive and Language Programs for 3, 4, and 5 Year Old Children". Southeastern Education Laboratory, Atlanta, Ga., April 1970. See also "Follow Through", HEW, Oct. 1969; F. Foster (Ed.) "Follow Through In Focus." State of New Jersey Department of Education, 1968. J. Klein "Planned Variation in Head Start Programs" Children, Jan.-Feb. 1971, pp.8-12.

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projects.

Objectives of the Enabler Model

The overall purpose of the Enabler Model is to provide regular on-site support, guidance and other necessary assistance to a local community for the implementation of its preschool, day care or other early childhood programs. The model was developed with four major principles in mind:

1. The Enabler's support and guidance is directed to helping the community to achieve its own goals and purposes.
2. The Enabler's assistance is offered in a manner designed to encourage and, indeed, enable local early childhood program leaders and participants to solve their program's problems on their own.
3. The Enabler helps the local staff and parents to develop relationships and build bridges to their own local resources and agencies.
4. The Enabler's assistance is offered to local staffs and parents in a way that helps them discover and maximize their own inherent strengths and talents.

Accepted as given is the principle that each community and its early childhood program are unique, having individual patterns of strengths and weaknesses, resources and needs, goals and purposes. A key assumption is that a preconceived and prespecified curriculum model brought into a community from the outside may be congenial for a given community, or it may be insufficiently sensitive to the community's unique qualities and patterns. Although all curriculum models can be adapted for local implementation, it was hoped that the Enabler Model would show the value of a non-prescriptive approach to helping those who make early childhood programs go.

A related principle stemmed from our assumptions about the ways people learn and grow. It is always easy, especially for those with extensive experience, to tell others how to run their programs. But it is reasonable to assume that the practice of telling people what to do (such as imposing prespecified curricula) encourages local centers to depend upon outside expertise for their learning. Such a learned pattern of dependence on outsiders may rob the parents and staff of the opportunity to discover and develop their own talents and potentials. Another way of saying this is that the more often community leaders are persuaded to accept a predetermined program, the less often they reach down into their own resources and strengthen their own understanding and skills. This latter point is related to the assumption that more meaningful learning occurs when people seek advice and assistance--as they experience the need for it--than when the need for help is identified by outsiders.

Another related principle is that growth and learning are affected by the quality of the relationships between learners and helpers. Qualitative aspects of relationships are difficult to define, and descriptions easily become clichés. The quality we consider essential for enduring growth is mutual respect. We therefore sought to fashion a strategy by which we could help all those involved with the early childhood program to achieve <u>their own purposes</u> by treating their purposes with respect. Macdonald makes a useful and interesting distinction between purposes and objectives which applies here:

> Purposes arise out of the transaction of the subjective and objective conditions of experience. Objectives, in contrast, are projected into situations and used as bases for shaping... the roles of individuals in relation to things, ideas and other people...Purposes arise <u>from</u> the subject who, it is implied, intentionally seeks some end. Purposes by this definition cannot arise from outside the situation, whereas objectives may be predetermined and used to shape situations prior to the transaction. (p. 25)

Helping the local program people to better achieve their own purposes, rather than imposing prespecified curriculum objectives stems from another related assumption. It is frequently suggested in the educational literature today that our major problem is to train the untrained, to give skills and knowledge to those who lack them. But this phrasing of the problem of education is inappropriate. We know how to make other people 'do' or 'learn' what is considered to be in their interests. The history of human societies provides ample evidence that a wide range of methods has been used successfully to make young and old 'do' and in fact 'learn' what they would not otherwise have chosen to. The essential problem is really how to help people to acquire the skills, knowledge and personal resources they need in such a way as to safeguard, sustain, protect and indeed enhance their own dignity, their sense of self respect, self worth and personal power. When the problem is phrased in this way, the key characteristic of a helping model must be respect for the purposes and goals of those who wish to be helped.

Another assumption (or perhaps we should call it a working hypothesis) involved in our planning was that in an early childhood program the way the administrators treat the teachers is the way the teachers treat the children. If this hypothesis is valid, then the relationships between administrators and teachers which are marked by trust and respect may characterize the relationships teachers develop with the children and their parents. We assumed that if we wanted to encourage relationships of mutual respect and trust between administrators and teachers, then the relationship between our Enabler and the local staff must also be marked by these desirable qualities. (See Bidwell, 1970 for an interesting discussion of the problems of trust).

From these provisional assumptions we derived a concept of the Enabler based on a clinical rather than an experimental approach to problem solving. The key elements of the concept are: recognition of the uniqueness of each community; the community's specification of its own goals and purposes; the opportunity for program leaders to consult the Enabler in terms of their own needs and perceptions, and the Enabler's assignment to advise program leaders in terms of his (or her) own background of experience and knowledge of early childhood education.

The Enabler's Role

At the outset, we visualized the Enabler Model as having two phases: the first one consisting of the period of initiation, and the second one involving on-going maintenance of the Head Start program.

Phase I. Initiation of the Program

During the initial period of the Enabler's work (generally expected to occur before the opening of classes) the Enabler meets with all community groups to be involved and served by the early childhood program. These groups include parents, Head Start staff and volunteers; social, medical and nutritional workers; public school personnel; CAP and neighborhood representatives and all others concerned with the program. In the course of these informal and semi-formal discussions, the Enabler encourages and facilitates the expression of the goals and purposes of everyone involved. When necessary, the Enabler helps these local groups to clarify and articulate their goals and purposes and to reconcile those which tend to be conflicting or incompatible. Most groups express their goals in very broad terms. It is probably helpful to program planners and participants when their goals are reasonably well specified as well as realistic. Helping participants

to refine their goals so that they are developmentally as well as culturally appropriate for the age and ethnic group of children to be served is also part of the Enabler's role during the initiation phase

Once a consensus concerning goals and purposes is achieved the Enabler then helps parents and staff members to answer the question: What do we have to do in order to implement our own goals? During the discussions of this question, the Enabler helps participants to consider a wide range of problems in implementation. Problems concerning the sharing of responsibility for policy development, personnel practices, staff structure and the distribution of specific tasks and their coordination are explored. Plans for the preparation of the classrooms, the transportation system, outdoor facilities, needed materials and equipment, daily program activities and the overall style of the curriculum are thought through in terms of the goals and purposes the community members themselves want to achieve.

Phase II. Support and Maintenance of the Program

With the sense of direction and some basic plans and intentions spelled out during the initiation phase, the Enabler's role shifts toward helping the local groups realize their goals. In the initial planning we thought that the Enabler should visit the community for four days each month. The actual length of each visit was to be planned in terms of the number of classes per site, and the distances between centers. We reasoned that sufficient time should be allowed so that the Enabler could visit each class on every monthly return to the community, and should have enough time to talk to all staff members and parent representatives regularly. Our initial planning specified six classes for each Enabler, allowing enough time for him to develop a sensitivity to the community and its unique problems and

needs. As yet there is no reliable way to forsee either the optimal length or the needed frequency of the Enabler's visits.

At the outset we identified six basic functions for the Enabler during the maintenance phase. These are described briefly below:

1) The Enabler as supplier of information.

   This function includes helping the parents and staff to obtain information, knowledge and ideas as needed. Included may be information about useful films, inexpensive equipment, free materials, workshops and conferences to attend, or tracking down local expertise to help deal with specific problems.

2) The Enabler as a link between all segments of the wider community.

   Under this heading we include aspects of the Enabler's work by which he (or she) helps to alert each community group (e.g. parents, school district staffs, county health services, community action or citizen's groups,) to what each needs from the other in order to strengthen the total early childhood program effort. Through direct contact with group leaders, the Enabler can help to clarify to different groups what each might do to back up the other.

3) The Enabler as an interpreter of the program in terms of its own goals.

   A most important function of the Enabler is to help local staff and parents to realize their own objectives. To do this, the Enabler makes regular observations of all aspects of program implementation. When appropriate the Enabler shares positive impressions and helps to interpret observations in terms of how the events converge to meet or to contradict the program's goals.

4) The Enabler as a source of support.

In addition to the technical and informational assistance which the Enabler offers he (or she) also provides moral support and encouragement. He shares an appreciation of local difficulties and adversities. He takes note and shares his impressions of the strengths he has observed in all participants, illustrates and describes positive efforts of one group or person to another.

5) The Enabler as a demonstration agent.

From time to time, the Enabler may be called upon to demonstrate skills or techniques. This demonstration may be achieved through occasional workshops, or informal discussions at staff meetings, or on-the-spot as events evolve. Sometimes the Enabler may want to bring in a nearby specialist to consult, or to introduce an appropriate film.

6) The Enabler as a neutralizer of conflict.

Groups organized for community endeavors often experience internal dissension and conflict. An Enabler must resist efforts to engage him on one side or another, but rather respond to these situations in such a way as to redirect the energies of those involved toward their own basic goals and purposes.

Summary

In the preceding paragraphs the broad dimensions of the Enabler Model have been outlined. It is too early to tell which preconceived elements were on target, and which key factors were omitted. Some preliminary hunches are emerging concerning desirable qualities of Enablers and their enabling styles.

One strong hunch is that knowledgable Enablers must have extensive experience in early childhood education. The kind of deep insight into what makes programs go and grow that comes from experience will help Enablers respond to the many types of help requested. Enablers must also be able to resist the temptation to give advice too quickly. Instead, time must be allowed for local program people to judge when they are ready to use the skills and resources available through the Enablers. Enablers are more likely to succeed when they respect and appreciate the potential abilities, talents and strengths in all people.

It is probably easier to implement the Enabler Model when the Enabler does not live and work in the community to be served. Most early childhood specialists are already known to the early childhood programs in their own communities, and their own preferences and biases about programs are probably clearly identified. However, a central feature of the Model is that the Enabler brings his specialized knowledge and skills to bear on achieving program goals and preferences which may be different from his own.

An early childhood program has many dimensions, and the assistance of many kinds of specialists is needed to keep the program quality high. For the early childhood specialist in the Enabling role, the point of entry is the quality of the day to day experiences provided for the children. The events in the classroom provide the heart beat and blood pressure readings in this clinical approach. Helping to maintain a fully "healthy" program may mean sharing information, demonstrating techniques, helping find other specialists, interpreting sources of conflict and reconciling

differences among the adults, it may also mean helping teachers to deepen their understanding of how children grow and sometimes helping administrators to understand what teachers need and how their growth is enhanced. Each specialist has his own frame of reference: the nutritional component, social and psychological services, public health, and so forth. But it is the Enabler who uses all special knowledge to improve the quality of the children's daily experiences in early childhood programs.

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CONDITION WITH CAUTION

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Condition with Caution

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Innovation and dissemination are two common terms in educational circles these days. Not only are we educators eager to develop innovative models, but we are urged to disseminate information about them as rapidly as possible to reduce the time lag between innovation and adoption.

The application of behavior modification techniques (sometimes called operant conditioning or behavior analysis) in programs for normal young children is one example of rapid and widespread adoption. A large body of empirical data supports the faith in the power of behavior modification techniques to produce desirable learning outcomes. It seems reasonable to summarize the extensive testing of these techniques by saying that when they are properly applied in the classroom, behavior modification techniques "work." Because they do "work," their application must be thought through very carefully.

I have found it helpful to think about the problems of applying behavior modification techniques in terms of the meaning of the behavior in question. For the purpose of discussion we can use the example of disruptive behavior--a favorite topic of behavior modifiers (see Becker et al. 1969).

Phenotypes and Genotypes

It is possible to think of three children, let us say, all of nursery age. Each child is exhibiting the same disruptive behavior, e.g., throwing blocks or toys. All three children "look" the same. We could say that these three children exhibit the same phenotype; that is to say that the phenomenon we observe

appears to be the same in all three children.

Now let us consider three such cases in terms of their genotypes. The term genotype refers to the genesis of the behavior, or how the children acquired the disruptive behavior being observed. I want to suggest at least three genotypes, although there may be many more.

Genotype I--Conditioning

The first genotype (G-I) we could call the conditioning type. This child learned to be disruptive because whenever he behaved this way at home or at school, he received attention or some other type of reinforcement or reward. Perhaps his mother distracted him from disruptive activity by offering him a cookie at such a time; or perhaps his teachers responded to his undesirable behavior by guiding him to a favorite activity, ostensibly to distract him. We could say that this child has learned the undesired behavior according to the principles of behavior modification; unwittingly, his undesirable behavior has been reinforced.

Genotype II--Emotional

The second genotype (G-II) we could call the emotional or perhaps neurotic type. This child's disruptiveness expresses some kind of emotional stress. Perhaps the child is trying to cope with anxieties or fears which have a long but unknown history. It may be that his home environment is emotionally tense or confusing, or that his attitude toward school includes some apprehension or expectation of rejection. For Genotype II, as for Genotype I, the disruptive behavior might have been reinforced following its initial expression. It might be reinforced by success in intimidating other children, or by the release

of tension; but the major stimulant of the behavior could be some kind of internal emotional stress.

Genotype III--Socialization

A third genotype (G-III) we might call the socialization type. In this case, the child's behavior could be a function of the fact that he lacks social skill or knowledge of alternative ways of responding to the psychosocial situation in which he finds himself. For whatever reason, no one has socialized him, or taught him a more appropriate behavior for the situation.

Strategies for Treatment

First, it should be acknowledged that for all three genotypes, behavior modification is likely to "work." Behavior modifiers have been successful with many varieties of persistent and recalcitrant behavior patterns. However, the approach I am proposing here is that the treatment probably should correspond to the genotype (See Table I).

For G-I, the conditioning type, behavior modification seems to be really appropriate. In the case of this child, the reinforcing events which have typically followed his disruptive behavior could be consciously withheld.

Table I. Paradigm Showing Possible Phenotype/Genotype/Treatment Relationships

Phenotype		Genotype		Treatment
e.g.,	Child I	G-I	Conditioning	Behavior Modification
Disruptive Behavior	Child II	G-II	Emotional Stress	Therapeutic Response
	Child III	G-III	Inadequate Socialization	Teaching

Suppose, for example, that a child has typically been "distracted" with a favorite activity or a cookie whenever his undesirable behavior has been exhibited. Mothers and teachers can evaluate their own responses (see Becker et al.) and begin to carefully extinguish this behavior while reinforcing more desirable behavior. The child's behavior could then be expected to change quite rapidly.

For G-II, emotional stress, although behavior modification is likely to "work," and the behavior disappear, the stress or injury may still be there; perhaps a new manifestation would appear and the injury or stress take its toll some other way. For this genotype, a suitable cathartic experience seems called for. Opportunities to "work out" or express unmanageable fears and tensions may have to be provided while the child acquires new skills and confidence. Parents and teachers can apply a "therapeutic response," sometimes called "reflection of feelings" to this child. Such adult responses help the child by acknowledging his feelings, reassuring him that his behavior is understood thought not accepted, and encouraging alternative response patterns. (See Axline, 1964.)

For G-III, inadequate socialization, the treatment needed seems to be straightforward teaching. Certainly behavior modification is likely to work, but it seems unnecessary and, in fact, inefficient, to shape the child's behavior surreptitiously--while he is not looking, so to speak! This child can be helped by the adults when they inform, clarify, suggest simple courses of action, or explain to the child simple alternative strategies for solving the problem at hand. Adults can engage the child's own social intelligence in analyzing the

problem at hand (for instance, wanting to enter into a group at play). The child's own intelligence can be relied on to weigh the alternative suggestions for more appropriate and functional behaviors with which to solve the problem at hand.

It would seem inappropriate to offer either the G-III child or the child of G-I (conditioning) the therapeutic responses appropriate for G-II (emotional stress). Not all children need to "let off steam"--some are simply not taught how to behave otherwise (G-III). The indiscriminate application of conditioning techniques runs the risk of leaving injuries unassuaged, and instruction unsupplied. On the other hand, the indiscriminate use of psychotherapeutic techniques, appropriate for G-II, runs the risk of protracting a pattern of behavior which expresses no deep mysterious tension or anxiety, but perhaps a faulty conditioning history.

Identification of Genotypes

How can parents and teachers tell which child is which? After all, we have said that these three genotypes have the same appearance (phenotype). It does not help much to say that this comes with experience! Perhaps it helps to suggest that undesirable behavior of the G-I conditioning type is more likely than the other two types to be out in the open, often flagrant. I have suggested that the behavior does get rewards. The G-II emotional type is probably more stealthy and furtive and perhaps more persistent. The distress is very likely to show in the intensity and seriousness of the behavior. Experienced mothers and teachers often comment that they can tell much about internal stress by the way a child moves his body, by his stance and characteristic facial expression. But we are often mistaken, of course.

Perhaps the soundest strategy is to begin the treatment of such behavior with the socialization treatment, namely to teach the child alternative ways of solving the problem. If direct teaching does not work ell, then careful analyses of the contexts in which the behavior occurs may help the adult to decide which of the other two genotypes might account for the behavior in question.

Conclusion

My major purpose in this paper is to suggest that behavior which often looks alike may have a variety of causes. The three genotypes outlined above are exploratory, and many more types may be useful. One point I would like to emphasize is that contrasting explanations of behavior do not necessarily exclude each other. Each explanation may be applicable to different cases.

A second point is that the paradigm presented above is a general one, and intended to suggest that all categories of behavior (phenotypes) may be understood in terms of contrasting genotypes. Suppose, for example, we are interested in helping so-called "permissive" parents or teachers. Without going into much detail, we could readily propose at least three genotypes: one might be fear of children, another might be a value or philosophical position, and yet another, simple neglect or laziness. These adults may appear to be alike, but their behaviors have different meanings. Those who would wish to help such adults may find that consideration of these alternative genotypes will assist them to develop effective helping strategies.

A final point is that people, young or old, never come in pure types. There are many complex mixtures and dynamics in the causes of behavior. We safeguard the quality of children's experiences when we do justice to these complexities. Knowing the children we work with, as well as knowing about them,

is probably a prerequisite to discovering the underlying meanings of their behavior. We should remember that behavior modification is a powerful and useful tool for adults who work with children. However, reinforcement theory does not adequately address itself to the issue of feelings, and those of us who work with children must take feelings into full account.

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Postscript

The Educational Resources Information Center/Early Childhood Education Clearinghouse (ERIC/ECE) is one of a system of 17 clearinghouses sponsored by the National Institute of Education to provide information about current research and developments in the field of education. The clearinghouses, each focusing on a specific area of education (such as early childhood, teacher education, language and linguistics), are located at universities and institutions throughout the United States.

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